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GEOGRAPHICAL NOTES.

The Distribution of Heat.—In the Memoirs of the Vienna Imperial Academy of Sciences, vol. li., 1885, Herr Spitaler has an interesting paper with carefully prepared tables on the distribution of heat on the earth's surface. The first of these tables gives the mean temperature, Centigrade, of the year for every fifth parallel of latitude from the equator to 90° North and South; the figures for the very high latitudes being, of course, merely speculative, since actual observations are wanting:

Latitude.	N.	S.	Latitude.	N.	S.
0	25.9	25.9	50	5.6	5.9
5	26.1	25.5	55	2.3	3.2
10	26.4	25.0	60	— o.8	0.2
15	26.3	24.2	65	 4.3	
20	25.6	22.7	70	9.9	- 4.9
25	23.7	20.9	75	- 13.3	
30	20.3	18.5	80	— 16.5	- 8.4
35	17.1	15.2	85° wanting	·	1
40	14.0	11.8	90	20.0	- 9.3
45	9.6	8.9			

From the equator to the 45th parallel the northern hemisphere is the warmer, from the 45th to the pole the southern. The greatest heat is not on the equator, but at 10° N. Lat. The diminution of heat from the equator to the poles is at first gradual, then rapid, and again gradual, the greatest loss being between 40° and 45° N., and 35° and 40° S.

The second table gives the mean temperature of the year for the whole earth at 15°, and the average for January and July, as follows:

		January.	July.
For the whole Earth		12.8	17.4
For the Northern Hemisphere		7.97	22.54
For the Southern Hemisphere		17.54	12.35

According to this the temperature of the whole earth is 5° lower in January than in July, and the Earth-winter and Earth-summer coincide with the winter and the summer of the northern hemisphere.

Herr Spitaler extends his observations to the difference between the east and the west. He divides the globe through the meridians of 80° W. and 100° E. from Greenwich, so that the eastern half is mostly land, and the western half mostly water.

The mean temperatures for these hemispheres are:

	\mathbf{E}	. Hemisphere.	W. Hemisphere.
North of the Equator		16.7	13.9
South of the Equator		14.3	14.9
For the whole Hemisphere .		15.5	14.4

Taking only the northern portion of these hemispheres, the January and July temperatures are found to be:

				E . 1	Hemisphere.	W. Hemisphere	
January					9.4	6.5	
July .					22.6	21.3	

The Submarine Congo.—Senhor E. de Vasconcellos writes to the Lisbon Geographical Society:

"According to a communication sent me by Capt. Thomson, of the *Buccaneer*, a steamer employed in laying the submarine telegraphic cable between Bissau and Bolama, the soundings at the mouth of the Congo show

that the channel of the river is prolonged on the bed of the ocean for 300 miles. This channel is produced, not by the increasing action of the current, but by means of the detritus brought down in suspension and deposited at the sides of the stream, so that this vast river has made for itself, under the sea, two sloping banks, composed principally of coprolite mud, and pours its stream between these on the original ocean-bottom."

Soundings showed that from the tops of these banks to the surface the water was but 180 metres deep, while in the central channel, and in the sea outside, the depth was 1,820 metres. There is evidently in process of formation an immense delta, which extends in a N. W. direction from the Congo mouth, as if to meet the advancing delta of the Niger; and it is easy to foresee that, at some future remote period, the corner of the Gulf of Guinea, with its islands, will be enclosed and filled up by these colossal dikes.

Neither Capt. Thomson nor Senhor Vasconcellos explains why the Congo seems to prefer coprolites (vasa coprolithe) to ammonites or trilobites, or ordinary mud.

The Banks of Newfoundland.—M. J. Thoulet, in a communication to the Paris Geographical Society, describes some of the observations made during the cruise of the frigate *La Clorinde* on the southern coast of Newfoundland.

Maury's theory that the Banks owed their formation to the deposit of mineral matter brought down from Greenland by the icebergs, and released when these melted under the action of the Gulf Stream, does not find favor with M. Thoulet. It seems to him, on the con-

trary, that the icebergs have nothing to do with the Banks, which are formed, in his opinion, by erosion and the effects of cold, and by the rocks transported by coast ice from the western shore of Newfoundland and from Labrador. The character of the bed is identical with that found in the estuaries and at the mouths of many rivers.

CAN EUROPEANS BECOME ACCLIMATIZED IN TROPICAL AFRICA?—Dr. R. W. Felkin treats this question in a paper read before the British Association for the Advancement of Science at Birmingham, in the first week of September, 1886.

Dr. Felkin divides Equatorial Africa into four zones: the coast zone, extending from 50 to 300 miles inland; the zone of the terrace land, leading up to the great plateaux, and varying much in breadth; the zone of the highland plateaux; and the zone of the mountains, rising in separate groups out of the plateaux.

The coast zone is characterized by great heat, excessive humidity, and the predominance of virulent malaria.

The terrace zone has a climate which is a mean between that of the coast and that of the plateaux.

The plateau zone has a rather lower temperature, greater variation, with nights considerably cooler than the days, less humidity, and, on the whole, less virulent malaria.

The mountain zone is much cooler, and the air of it is pure and invigorating.

In Dr. Felkin's opinion, no very great importance is to be attached to the experience of travellers in Africa, as to the effect of the climate on their health. The traveller undergoes bodily exertion, exposure, and mental worry, which would affect his health unfavorably even at home. The conclusion reached is, that northern Europeans will never be able to colonize on the coast regions of tropical Africa, or for some distance up the great rivers. All that will be possible for Europeans is to accommodate themselves for a few years to the climate, rigidly adapting their habits of life to their new environment, and retreating frequently to a sanatorium (sanitarium?) on the higher land of the interior, or going on a voyage home or to the Cape.

Dr. Felkin believes that, with attention to climatic conditions and the common laws of hygiene, colonists of the English and German races might thrive in the districts around Mts. Kilima-njaro and Kenia, the Niam-Niam, the region north of the Albert Nyanza, the Shuli district, the country about the Lakes Victoria, Tanganika, and Nyassa, the Central Congo Free State, the Cameroons, and, possibly, the district inland from Sierra Leone.

Mr. Capper, in the discussion which followed the reading of the paper, maintained that it was quite possible for Europeans to become acclimatized, even on the west coast of Africa; while Mr. Joseph Thomson, the explorer, doubted whether the European constitution would be able to endure the climate of Central Africa.

Central America and the Panama Canal.—In the Revue Coloniale Internationale, for September and October, 1886, Dr. H. Polakowsky reviews the history of the efforts at the construction of a canal between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and comes to the conclusion that M. de Lesseps has chosen the only desirable and truly practical route—that from Colon to Panama.

Dr. Polakowsky admits that there has been some un-

necessary waste of money in the prosecution of M. de Lesseps' enterprise, but he believes that the canal can be finished at a total cost of 1,500,000,000 francs, or, at most, of 1,800,000,000, and will pay at once a dividend of not less than 6 per cent. These are matters which, however interesting in themselves, principally concern the stockholders of the Panama Interoceanic Canal Company; but some parts of Dr. Polakowsky's article are addressed to the general public.

He says that after the decision of the Paris Congress of 1879, in favor of the Panama route, a great portion of the American press used threatening language about the Monroe Doctrine, with which the contemplated canal had nothing to do, and magnified the advantages of the In 1880, Engineer Menocal, on behalf Nicaragua line. of a provisional company in New York ("headed by ex-President Grant, a reckless projector and speculator"), concluded with the government of Nicaragua an advantageous contract for a canal through that country. contract was declared null and void in October, 1884, because the canny Yankees, who were willing enough to write and to agitate against the "French" canal by Panama, were much too shrewd to risk any of their own money in the Nicaragua enterprise, for which they had hoped, but failed, to secure the aid of foreign capital.

Dr. Polakowsky's conclusion with regard to the Monroe Doctrine is, perhaps, a little hasty, and he will hardly take it amiss if the American people prefer to do their own thinking on that subject.

It is quite true, as he says, that the Company of 1880 did not begin the cutting of the Nicaragua Canal; but, ac-

cording to his own account, this lapse seems to have been due much more to the close-fistedness of the Europeans than to the exceeding shrewdness of the Yankees. It was, in truth, due to neither of these, but to the slowness with which the general mind everywhere receives the idea of a great enterprise; and it is not to Dr. Polakowsky's credit that he has overlooked this constant quantity in his study of the Interoceanic Canal problem, now three centuries old.

If he is less than courteous to the Americans, Dr. Polakowsky treats recorded facts with something very like disdain.

The Nicaragua Canal, he says, is to be not less than 294 kilometres long (182.6769 miles); but Mr. Menocal, acknowledged by Dr. Polakowsky himself to be an engineer of consummate ability, gives to the canal a total length of 169.8 miles. Engineer Menocal provides for 7 locks; Dr. Polakowsky asserts that 14, at the very least, and probably 20, will be necessary.

Dr. Polakowsky tells us of 5 great dams to be built, where Engineer Menocal designs but one, and of solid embankments, 37 kilometres in length, to defend the Nicaragua Canal against the effect of the tremendous rains; a precaution, adds this entertaining writer, wholly uncalled for on the line of the Panama Canal!

The time of transit by way of Panama is put at 12 hours, and that by Nicaragua at 6 days.

Engineer Menocal estimates the time required for the passage of a ship through the Nicaragua Canal, from sea to sea, at thirty hours.

THE ANGLO-TEUTON IN CALIFORNIA. — Dr. Klemens

Max Richter, of San Francisco, writes to the *Deutsche* Kolonialzeitung, of Oct. 1st, a letter full of statistics and enthusiasm concerning the Golden State. He says truly enough that the climate is healthful in every part of the State, that the soil is amazingly fertile, and produces nearly every thing that could be desired, and that while the northern boundary is near the latitude of Rome, San Diego, at the southern end, is almost on a line with No harm is done by repeating these wellknown facts; but a doctor who adds to his name the qualification of "Königl. Stabsarzt a D.," and appears to have resided in California for a number of years, ought to have an approximate idea of the size of the State. With the correct figures before him in the Census Report, he prefers to tell his readers the old, familiar story, a thousand times repeated and a thousand times disproved, that California contains 188,981 square miles; 33,000 more than it has.

The population of the State in 1880 was 864,694. Of these 571,820 were natives of the United States, 33,097 natives of Great Britain, 62,962 from Ireland, 42,532 from Germany, 73,548 from China, and the rest from various other places.

It is, without doubt, the study of these numbers which leads Dr. Richter to conclude, with a distinguished climatologist whom he quotes, that California is destined to produce, in the "Anglo-Teuton," the highest possible development of the human race. No conclusion could be more pleasing to those fortunate persons who happen to be Angles or Teutons; but to the rest of mankind it must look as if Dr. Richter were any thing but a Daniel come to judgment.

Communication between THE DANUBE Rhine.—Dr. Joseph Szabó describes, in the Bulletin of the Hungarian Geographical Society, the discovery in 1877 of subterranean passages through which the waters of the upper Danube flow into the little river Aach, and thence into the Rhine. The discovery was brought about by remarking that dams, constructed for the purpose of accumulating the water for the use of factories established on the Danube, did not produce the desired result. amination showed several rifts in the white jurassic rocks of the river bank between the villages of Immendingen and Möhringen; and it was found that at these points as well as at Tuttlingen, a village higher up the river, the Danube often ran dry. The level of the Aach is more than 500 feet below that of the Danube, and this difference of level suggested the experiments which explained the mystery. A large quantity of creosote was introduced into one of the fissures through a rubber tube more than a hundred and fifty feet long. This was done at four o'clock in the afternoon of the 22d of September, and on the 25th, at six o'clock in the morning, the water on the other side of the dividing ridge showed the presence of creosote.

Another experiment was made on the 24th of September. Two hundred hundredweight of rock salt were thrown into the Danube, and the water collected on the other side and analyzed accounted for nearly the whole of this quantity.

In order to make the demonstration clear to the eye as well, Mr. Ten Brink, owner of a factory on the Aach, poured into the fissure on the Danube side 22 lbs. of fluorescine dissolved in water. Sixty hours later the splen-

did green coloring was seen at the source of the Aach; and it remained visible for thirty-six hours.

The experiments proved, in Dr. Szabó's opinion, that there is a direct connection between the Aach and the Danube; that when the Danube is low, it furnishes half the water of the Aach; that the connection between the two streams is by fissures in the white jurassic rocks, which are about 1,000 feet thick; that as the system of fissures is in the strata which extend in the form of a trough between the Rauh-Alps and the Randen, it is to be supposed that the fissures widen farther down, and that the water descends to the strata of marl and clay, which form the base of the calcareous rocks, and that after flowing a distance of 11 kilometres it issues in the lake which is the source of the Aach; and that the banks of the Danube between Immendingen, Möhringen, and Tuttlingen are not so well adapted to the employment of water-power as the region of the Aach, since it is easy to predict, from a geological point of view, that the openings which absorb the waters of the Danube will become greater and greater in course of time, and will draw off, to the advantage of the Aach, a constantly increasing volume of water.

In conclusion it must be admitted that, geographically speaking, the Danube does not belong exclusively to the basin of the Black Sea, but that it is, in the upper part of its course, a secret tributary of the North Sea, and that there are times when it belongs wholly to this alone.

At the time of his visit (Aug. 17, 1883) Dr. Szabó crossed to the right bank of the Danube, where one of the clefts in the rock was hidden by bushes, and heard very distinctly the sound of the waters pouring into the invisible gorge.

Exploration of the Ruins of Copan.—In the *Proceedings* of the Royal Geographical Society, for September, Mr. A. P. Maudslay gives an account of two expeditions to Central America, made by him in 1883 and 1884, for the purpose of exploring the ruins at Quirigua and Copan. At Quirigua a careful survey of the site was made, and more than a thousand moulds in plaster and paper were secured and safely transported to the Archæological Museum at Cambridge.

At Copan the work was more serious. The ruins here are much more extensive, and Mr. Maudslay was interrupted in his labors, at one time by the war, in the course of which Barrios was killed, and at another by the prevalence of small-pox in the neighborhood. He persisted, however, and added to his collections, now safe in London.

Mr. Maudslay is satisfied that all these Central American cities, Copan, Quirigua, Palenque, Tikal, and Menché, must have been abandoned before the discovery of America; and his exploration convinced him that many of the statements as to the character of the ruins had been made in error. The long heaps of stones which have been taken for ruined city walls are, in fact, the remains of single-chambered, stone-roofed houses, probably dwellings, raised on foundations not more than two or three feet high.

Numbers of such houses are to be found in all parts of the valley of Copan.

The whole mass of terraces and pyramidal foundations for the temples is built up of a rubble of blocks of stone and mud, bound together with internal upright walls of faced stone and horizontal layers of cement. The worked stone casing was usually arranged in great steps, a single step sometimes measuring eight feet in breadth and height. The rains and the vigorous vegetation have broken down these structures into rough mounds.

On digging into these mounds, Mr. Maudslay found fragments of human bones, stone axes, jade beads, pearls, and, in one place, a pot containing a red powder and several ounces of quicksilver. There were also two jaguar skeletons, one of them partially painted red, and other animal remains.

The roofing used was the horizontal arch, found in all ancient American buildings. All the stone facings, the steps, and the cornices were covered with the carvings and sculptures made familiar to the public by the drawings of Catherwood.

Mr. Maudslay's general conclusion is that the people of Central America and Yucatan, inheriting a similar civilization, represented at the time of the Spanish Conquest two different stages of decay: the former having abandoned their great structures and gone back to a lower state of culture; while the Yucatecos, though they had almost ceased to be builders, still clung to some of the wonderful edifices, which were either particularly useful, or were venerated for their sanctity.

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